How can current slaughter and dressing procedures in UK pig slaughterhouses be improved to reduce contamination of pig meat with pathogenic bacteria?

Richards, P.J.\*(1), Tinker, D.B.(2), Wei, S.(1), Nova, R.J.(1), Howell, M.(3) and Dodd, C.E.R.(1)

## **Abstract**

In pork slaughterhouses a number of dressing stages have the potential to improve the hygienic condition of the carcass surface. The operations performed at each of these dressing stages can be undertaken using a diverse range of mechanized systems that each have different reductive effects on the levels of microbial contamination. Our results show that pre-washing optimizes the effectiveness of condensation scalding in improving carcass hygiene, and that the same areas of carcasses are consistently not effectively heated by singeing/flaming, independent of the different systems used in pork and bacon slaughterhouses.

## Introduction

Salmonellosis is one of the most frequently reported gastrointestinal illnesses of the European Union (EU) and consumption of contaminated pork meat is recognised as one of the key sources of the disease in humans (Fosse et al., 2008). Great efforts have been made to reduce the prevalence of Salmonella in the EU pig herd. It has been established that, once on-farm controls to reduce the incidence of Salmonella in pigs have been introduced, it becomes increasingly economically advantageous to focus efforts to reduce the prevalence of Salmonella at the slaughterhouse (Alban and Stärk, 2005). It is recognized that carcass dressing stages that involve heating or drying of the carcass surface, such as scalding and singeing, reduce the levels of microbial contamination (Borch et al., 1996; Pearce et al., 2004). However, a number of different approaches may be employed to each stage of carcass dressing using a range of apparatus of different slaughterhouses may have dissimilar outcomes. Following a base-line study of four slaughterhouses (Richards et al., 2007), our study has focussed on thermal processing stages (scalding and singeing) where time-temperature parameters vary.

### Material and Methods

## Slaughterhouse Selection

Following an assessment survey of the processes and operating conditions of the UK pork slaughter industry, representative large UK slaughterhouses were selected for study (Richards *et al.*, 2007) as between them they performed the range of common slaughter and dressing operations identified in the UK industry. Subsequently, individual stages associated with particular slaughterhouses were examined in detail.

#### Thermographic Methods

The thermal imaging camera used at the pork slaughterhouses was a Flir ThermaCAM PM695 PAL (FLIR Systems Ltd. (UK), Kent, UK.), while that used at the bacon plant was a Flir E320 (FLIR Systems Ltd. (UK)). Thermal images were taken about 1.5s after exiting the singer and care was taken to ensure that the carcasses avoided being rinsed prior to imaging. Emissivity was taken as 0.95.

Assessment of Carcass Hygiene

<sup>(1)</sup> Division of Food Sciences, University of Nottingham, Sutton Bonington Campus, LE12 5RD UK.

<sup>(2)</sup> David Tinker & Associates Ltd., Ampthill, Bedfordshire, MK45 2LD UK.

<sup>(3)</sup>Food Standards Agency, Aviation House, 125 Kingsway, London, WC2B 6NH UK.

<sup>\*</sup>corresponding author: Philip richards@nottingham.ac.uk

Carcasses were sampled following key stages of processing, with non-sequential carcasses evaluated at each stage. Whole carcasses were sampled by sponge-swabbing following the Food Standards Agency (UK) guidelines (Anon, 2006). At slaughterhouses practicing condensation scalding, samples were taken after bleeding, after scalding and pre-chill over two visits. To assess the effect of singeing on microbial contamination, sponge-swab samples were taken from three sites (belly, trotter, anus) identified as 'hot' and 'cold' spots through thermal imaging. Sponge-swabs were assessed for levels of Salmonella, Escherichia coli, Enterobacteriaceae and total aerobic bacteria, as appropriate, following standard methods.

# Results

Condensation scalding systems were examined in three slaughterhouses. In slaughterhouse A the condensation scalder was fitted with an integral pre-wash system and operated at  $63.8^{\circ}$ C with a residency time of 4.5 min. Slaughterhouse B ran an older system that operated at  $65.8^{\circ}$ C for 8 min. Although similar initial total aerobic counts were present on the carcasses prior to scalding (P > 0.05, Student's t test), there was a difference of  $\sim 1 \log_{10}$  colony forming units (CFU) cm<sup>-2</sup> afterwards (P < 0.001), with carcasses in slaughterhouse A showing the lower counts. After scalding Enterobacteriaceae numbers were reduced to barely detectable levels and no statistical difference existed between levels of contamination in either slaughterhouse (P > 0.05). At Slaughterhouse C, where pre-wash samples were accessible, there was an approximate 10-fold reduction in the total aerobic count following the pre-wash stage, which was not reflected in Enterobacteriaceae or *E. coli* counts. There was no access to post-scald samples; however, this suggests that pre-wash systems are beneficial in reducing the initial contamination.

The efficacy of singeing was examined using a thermal imaging camera to determine surface temperatures of carcasses immediately after singeing in three plants using two models of singer: i) fully enclosed style with a single flame from the base ii) vertical, intermittent gas flame. Thermal images of the carcasses post-singe indicated that the temperature across the carcass was not uniform and detected several consistent 'cool spots' (Figure 1). The temperatures of the flat surfaces of the carcass such as the belly were relatively uniform and temperatures over 80°C were recorded (Figure 1A). The lower trotters (Figure 1B) and areas around the anus and/or scrotal sack (Figure 1C) were colder, with temperatures less than 55°C. Total aerobic counts at the three sites were similar pre-singe but after singeing the belly counts were on average 1-2 log<sub>10</sub> CFU cm<sup>-2</sup> lower than those at the other two sites. After polishing counts were 2-3 log<sub>10</sub> CFU cm<sup>-2</sup> higher and very similar at all three sites, suggesting a redistribution of the bacteria (see Wei *et al.*, 2009). Enterobacteriaceae counts were higher around the anus pre-singe than the other two sites but singeing reduced counts at all three sites to a similar level. Polishing increased the counts at the anus more than at the other two sites. The *E. coli* counts reflected this difference.

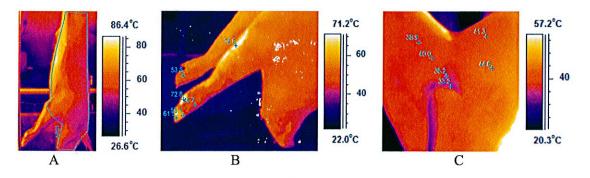


Figure 2. Surface Temperature of Carcasses Immediately Post-singeing

Discussion

Comparison of data from slaughterhouses using condensation scalding with varying parameters showed that the more stringent scald parameters produced a smaller reduction in contamination. This suggested that the control of microbial loads by condensation scalding relied on factors other than time-temperature parameters. The design of the machine may be an important factor: pre-washing did show some impact on reducing bacterial contamination; it may also serve to increase the inimical effect of the hot water vapour on the contaminating microflora by removal gross contamination and making the surface more accessible to the water vapour. Additionally, data from this study suggest that the presence of 'cold' spots in the singe operation does influence the survival of bacteria on the carcass surface and these could act as a seeding source, causing redistribution of contamination by the polishers. Presently, in the UK no producers operate any additional inimical process against bacterial pathogens before chilling. Hence singe efficacy is key in reducing carcass contamination levels.

#### Conclusion

Our results suggest that process design can have an important impact on thermal operations which go beyond gross time/temperature parameter measurements. Optimization of processes could improve carcass hygiene and bacterial pathogen carriage on pork meat by the adoption of relatively simple changes in practice.

#### References

ALBAN, L. AND STÄRK, K.D.C. 2005. Where should the effort be put to reduce the *Salmonella* prevalence in the slaughtered swine carcass effectively? Preventative Veterinary Medicine 68: 63-79.

ANON. 2006. Red carcass sampling. London, UK, Food Standards Agency. http://www.ukmeat.org/RedSampling.htm

BORCH, E., NESBAKKEN, T. AND CHRISTENSEN, H. 1996. Hazard identification in swine slaughter with respect to foodborne bacteria. International Journal of Food Microbiology 30: 9-25.

FOSSE, J., SEEGERS, H. AND MAGRAS, C. 2008. Foodborne zoonoses due to meat: a quantitative approach for a comparative risk assessment applied to pig slaughtering in Europe. Veterinary Research 39:1

PEARCE, R.A., BOLTON, D.J., SHERIDAN, J.J., MCDOWELL, D.A., BLAIR, I.S. AND HARRINGTON, D. 2004. Studies to determine the critical control points in pork slaughter hazard analysis and critical control point systems. International Journal of Food Microbiology 90: 331-339.

RICHARDS, P.J., TINKER, D., HOWELL, M. AND DODD, C.E.R. 2007. Salmonella contamination of pork carcasses: UK baseline culture-based data determined by sponge sampling during 2006. In: Proc. 7th International Symposium on the Epidemiology and Control of Salmonella in Pork. May 9 - 11, 2007. Verona, Italy.

WEI, S., RICHARDS, P.J. AND DODD, C.E.R. 2009. Genetic typing and heat resistance of *Escherichia coli* from pig carcasses during slaughter in a UK slaughterhouse. *Ibid*.